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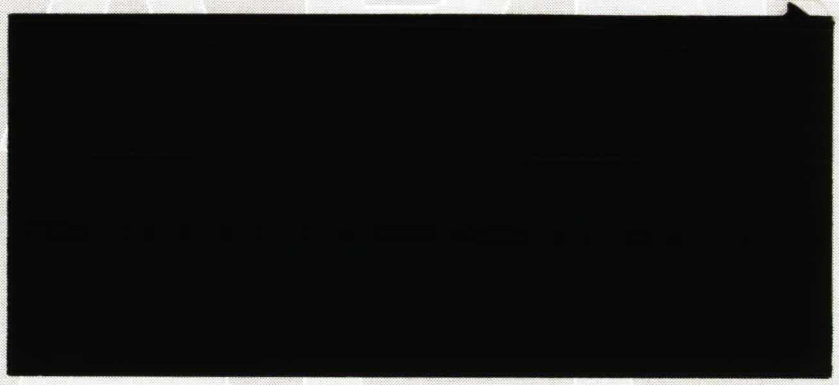
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**Facets of Human Values: Definition and Structure
of Work Values and General Life Values**

Dov Elizur and Abraham Sagie

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**Facets of Human Values: Definition and Structure
of Work Values, and General Life Values.**

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ABSTRACT

The major objective of the present study was to construct a systematic definitional framework for the work values domain. The suggested definition provided guidelines for constructing items and the formulation of hypotheses about the relationships between the definitional framework and the structure of the empirical observations. Based on data collected from Israeli samples the hypotheses were tested by means of Guttman's Smallest Space Analysis (SSA). A double ordered conceptual system, a radex structure, was obtained in each of the samples, reflecting the two hypothesized facets: modality of outcome and type of system performance relations.

An additional objective was to analyse the relations between work values and general life values. A multifaceted definition of human values which covers work values as well as life values was suggested and empirically tested. An empirical conical structure, a conex structure, was obtained that reflects the three facets of the definition: value modality - cognitive, affective, and instrumental; focus - focused or diffused; and life area - work or life in general.

Facets of Human Values: Definition and Structure of Work Values, and General Life Values.

There has been growing interest, in recent years, in the analysis of human values in general (or life values; Braithwaite & Law, 1985; Levy, 1990; Rokeach & Ball-Rokeach, 1989; Schwartz, 1992; Schwartz & Bilsky, 1987, 1990), and of work values specifically (Elizur, 1984; Elizur, Borg, Hunt, & Beck, 1991; Furnham, 1984). Extensive empirical attention was devoted to typology and measurement of values (Bond, 1988; Borg, 1986; Elizur et-al., 1991), to the dynamics of value priorities (i.e., stability and change; Cherrington, 1980; Levy-Le Boyer, 1986; Rokeach & Ball-Rokeach, 1989) and to the relationship between values and attitudes, goals, norms, and behavior (Guttman, 1982; Homer & Kahle, 1988; Rokeach 1973, 1979; Sagie, 1993).

In view of the large number of studies it is surprising to see so little attention devoted to the basic structure of the domain. Billings and Cornelius (1980) argued that better understanding of the dimensions of the domain would facilitate integration of theory and aid in developing items for research and evaluation. The present study attempted to find the basic concept structure of work values, and general life values, to suggest systematic definitional frameworks for both domains, and test them empirically.

Reviewing the literature reveals that both concepts, values and work values, are rather vague. The definitions are complex and unclear, and frequently include other concepts, that may be related empirically to values but are not integral part of the concept, and thus can not define it.

Some authors suggest a very general definition of values. Values are important elements in an individual's frame of reference

(Pennings, 1970). A value is what one regards as conducive to one's welfare (Locke, 1976). Others define values in reference to people's relatedness to their behavior or action. "A value is a conception, explicit or implicit, distinctive of an individual or of a group, of the desirable which influences the selection from available modes, means, and ends of action" (Kluckhohn 1961). Values are considered as normative standards to judge and to choose among alternative modes of behavior (Becker & McKlintock, 1967). According to Rokeach (1976) a value is an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end state of existence is personally or socially preferable to alternative modes of behavior or end states of existence.

Some authors suggest a distinction between values and attitudes (Rokeach, 1973), while Levy and Guttman (1976) consider values as a subset of attitudes with an emphasis on the concept of importance.

Similarly, there are various definitions of work values. According to Pennings (1970) work value systems can be defined as constellations of attitudes and opinions with which an individual evaluates his job and work environment and they may be either intrinsic or extrinsic. Herzberg and his colleagues (1959) considered work values as representing motivational aspects, i.e. motivators and hygiene. Super (1968) considers work values as representing the self concept and personal goals that motivate the individual. He developed the Work Values Inventory (WVI). Several authors consider work values as representing Protestant work ethics (PWE, e.g. Furnham 1989, Bluen & Barling 1983, Mirels & Garrett 1971). Wollack, Goodale, Wijting, & Smith (1971) regard work values as referring to general attitudes regarding the meaning that an individual attaches to his work role. They developed the Survey of Work Values (SWV) that is 'limited to the construct of secularized Protestant Ethics with which work values seem to be closely linked'. The PWE may be a useful concept, and

it may be quite closely related to work values, but it can not come instead of a definition of the work values concept.

Several authors consider values as motivation. According to Allport, Vernon, & Lindzey (1951) values are basic interests or motives and evaluative attitudes. Feather (1982) considers values as a particular class of motives. Similarly French & Kahn (1962), describe both needs and values as having the ability to motivate goal directed behavior by inducing valence on objects, behavior, or states of affairs. Based on empirical data Elizur and Shye (1992), arrived at the conclusion that they are two distinct concepts, that are related, but are not identical.

As a result of the confusion created around the definition of the concept, Pryor (1979) in an article titled "In search of a concept: Work values" arrived at the conclusion that work values "is a poorly formulated and confused concept". He suggests to replace it by the term "work aspect preference", which is a similar but different concept. The present study attempted to find the basic concept structure of work values, and to suggest a systematic definitional framework for the work values domain and test it empirically.

According to Levy & Guttman(1976), an item belongs to the universe of value items, if and only if, its domain asks estimation of the degree of importance of a goal or behavior in life area and the range is ordered from very important to obtain to very important to avoid the goal. Since work values are but a subset of values, adopting Levy and Guttman's definition, an item belongs to the universe of work value items if its domain asks for an assessment of the importance of a goal or behavior in the work context and the range is ordered from very important to very unimportant. Accepting this definition one finds that many of the items included in instruments intended to assess work values doesn't fit since they do not ask for an estimation of the importance of a goal or behavior.

Defining the work value domain.

The formal approach of facet analysis (Elizur, 1970, 1984; Elizur & Guttman, 1976; Guttman, 1959; Shye, 1978; Shye & Elizur with Hoffman, 1994) was applied in this study. Facet analysis attempts to formally define the universe of observations and to test hypotheses about the relationship between the definitional framework and the structure of the empirical observations.

To analyze the work values domain systematically, we attempted to define its essential facets (Elizur, 1984). Two basic facets: modality of outcome and system performance contingency were distinguished.

Facet A-Modality of outcome.

Various work outcomes are of material nature. Some can be directly applied (such as pay); others have direct practical consequences (such as benefits, hours of work, and work conditions). This class of outcomes can be defined as material, or instrumental, in the sense that the outcomes are concrete and of practical use.

An additional set of items included in most studies about work outcomes concerns interpersonal relations: opportunities to interact with people, relations with colleagues, supervisor, and others. These items are affective rather than material. Most studies about work outcomes also include items such as interest, achievement, responsibility, and independence, which may be classified as cognitive rather than affective or instrumental.

Facet B-System performance contingency.

The second classification concerns system performance contingency and can be considered to cut across the modality domain. Managements of organizations recognize the necessity of motivating individuals to join the organization and to attend to work. For

that purpose they provide various incentives usually unrelated to task performance. These incentives include benefit plans , working conditions, and various services such as transportation, subsidized meals, and other resources provided by the organization. The term system rewards (Katz & Kahn,1966) is applied to this class of outcomes. However, certain other outcomes such as recognition, advancement, feedback, status, and pay, are usually provided after task performance and in exchange for it. The term performance rewards may best characterize this class of work outcomes.

On the basis of these observations, we drafted a formal definition of work values by means of a mapping sentence, the domain of which includes two facets and the range of which expresses the degree of importance of the outcome to the respondent. Each component of the work-values domain was created by selecting one element from each facet; each of the components designates a content area that is but a subspace of the conceptual space of work values according to the suggested definition.

Mapping sentence definition of work values

The extent to which subject (x) assesses the importance of having

Facet A: Modality

Facet B: System Performance Contingency

$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} a_1 \text{ instrumental} \\ a_2 \text{ affective} \\ a_3 \text{ cognitive} \end{array} \right\}$

outcomes provided as

$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} b_1 \text{ reward} \\ b_2 \text{ resource} \end{array} \right\}$

is of \longrightarrow

$\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{very high} \\ \text{to} \\ \text{very low} \end{array} \right)$

importance to him/her for a sense

of well-being at work.

Objectives and hypotheses

The main objective of the study was to examine the structure of work values and to see whether or not the internal structure of the definition suggested would be confirmed by the empirical data. We hypothesized that, with an appropriate structural analysis of empirical data, the two facets of the definition would be reflected as two independent classifications.

As to the order between the elements of the facets, no a priori order could be specified for the modality facet. Thus, the modality facet was expected to be polarizing, when each of the modalities corresponds to a different direction. For Facet B, system-performance contingency, an order based on performance contingency was hypothesized. We expected that rewards that are more directly related to performance should be nearer to the center, while system rewards, available in the organizational environment, should be more in the periphery. The total structure was hypothesized to be of a radial distribution, a radex structure, when one facet corresponds to the axial direction from center to periphery, and the second facet relates to the direction angles around the axis.

METHOD

Samples

Data were collected from two samples of Israeli respondents. The first sample of 546 was a representative sample of the urban adult Israeli population. 55 percent were female, mean age 38. The second sample of 378 included managers and employees of various organizations, and students of business administration. The majority of the sample were between the age of 21 and 39, and 70 percent were males.

The questionnaires

A 21 item Work Values Questionnaire (WVQ), designed according to the above definitional framework (Elizur, 1984) was administered to the first sample, and the 24 item WVQ (Elizur et. al., 1991;

Elizur, 1994) was completed by the respondents of the second sample. The three items were added to have a better representation of the performance rewards.

Smallest Space Analysis

To examine the structural hypotheses, Smallest Space Analysis (SSA) was employed. SSA is a technique for structural analysis of similarity data (Guttman, 1968; Elizur, 1984; Elizur & Guttman, 1976) which provides a metric representation of non-metric information based on the relative distances within a set of points. Each variable is represented by a point in an Euclidean space of one or more dimensions. The points are plotted in the space of smallest possible dimensionality which preserves the rank order of the relations among the variables.

The distances among the points are inversely related to the observed similarity between the variables as measured by the correlation coefficients. When the correlation between two variables is high, the distance between the points representing them should be relatively small; conversely, when the correlation between the variables is low, the distance between the points should be relatively large. This method has been successfully applied in various studies testing structural hypotheses (Canter, 1985; Elizur et al., 1991).

RESULTS

The results of the SSA-1 computer program in the form of a map are reproduced in Figures 1 and 2. Each point represents one of the work values. The distance between the points is based on the similarity coefficients between the items - the higher the correlation between two items, the closer they should be in the space.

Observing the maps in Figures 1 and 2, which depict the structure of the variables for the two samples, we see that the empirical results support the hypotheses. The structure of the empirical data in both samples, indeed reflects a division of the space into regions according to the facets defined.

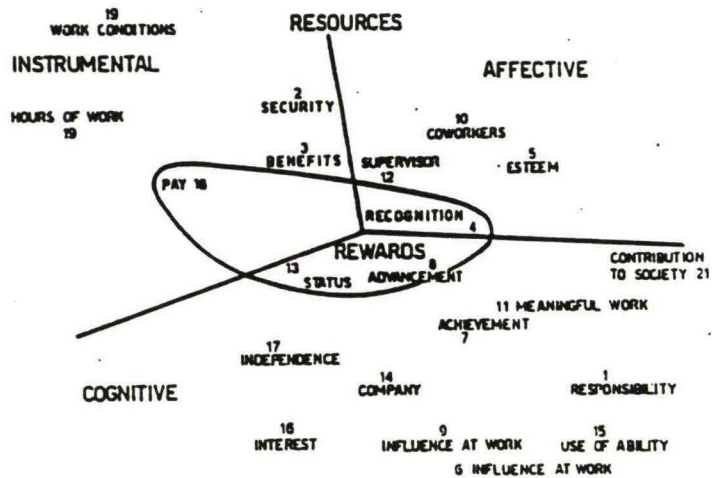


Figure 4. The empirical structure of 21 work outcomes. (A two-dimensional SSA-I; coefficient of alienation 0.26.)

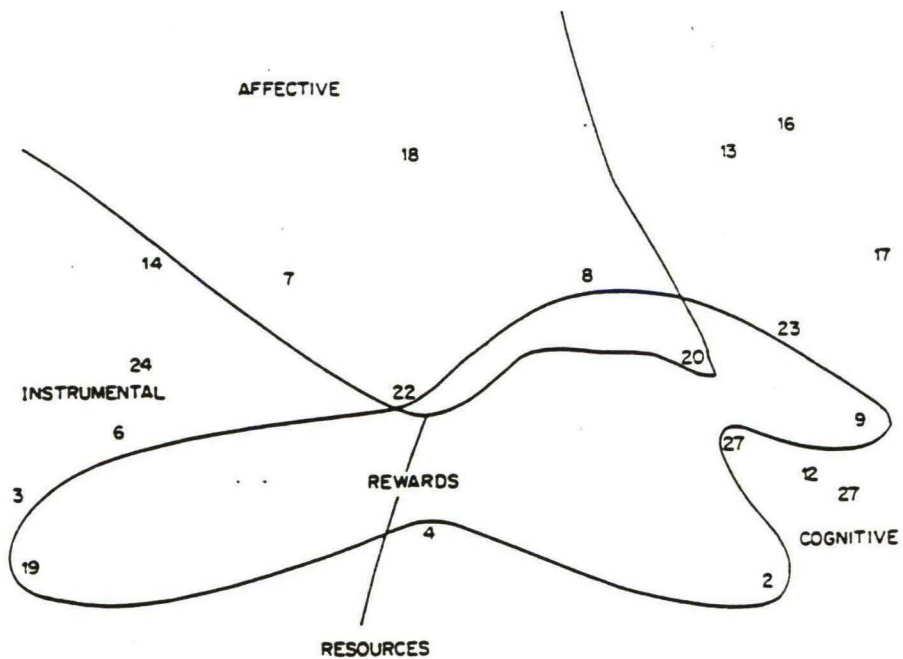


Figure 2. The structures of work values. The Israel sample. 2 dimensional SSA (coef. of alienation = 0.26)

The relationships between work values and general life values

A second objective of the study was to analyse the relationships between work values and general life values. Quite remarkably, however, the two domains, general life values and work values, have been usually investigated independently. Moreover, conceptualization and investigation of values and work values are made separately by different groups of scientists. The present study is based on the realization that work values as well as values in other life areas are all parts of the general values domain.

The variety of life values and the compatibilities and conflicts among them (e.g., independence may conflict conformity, but may be compatible with entrepreneurship and inventiveness) brought about several suggestions for classification of these values. Rokeach (1973, 1979) distinguished between terminal (end states) and instrumental (means) values. Terminal values are phrased normally as nouns (e.g., obedience), and instrumental ones as adjectives (e.g., obedient). It was argued that these two forms of values have different impacts on attitudes and behavior. Weishut (1989) found, however, that for most values both phrasing received similar importance ratings and showed similar correlations with other variables. Furthermore, both forms are interchangeable; many terminal values can be transformed into instrumental phrasings, and vice-versa.

Alternative distinctions were proposed as well. Hofstede (1980) and Hofstede and Bond (1984) suggested that values may be distinguished according to their relative emphasis on individualistic or collectivist interests. However, this distinction is not exhaustive; several values (love, happiness, openness to change, etc.) have both, individualistic and collectivistic characteristics. The problems concerned with the instrumental-terminal as well as the individualistic-collectivistic dichotomies, led Schwartz (1992) to drop both

classifications that were originally part of his conceptualization of life values (Schwartz & Bilsky, 1987, 1990). In his recent analysis, Schwartz (1992) suggested a typology based on the motivational features revealed by the different values.

Quite different classifications were proposed for the work values domain. One of the most widely used approaches classified work values as either intrinsic or extrinsic (Wernimont, 1972). Doubts regarding the validity of this distinction (Billings & Cornelius, 1980; Dyer & Parker, 1975) lead investigators to suggest other classifications. Elizur (Elizur, 1984; Elizur et al., 1991) classified work values according to their modalities (i.e., whether they are cognitive, affective, or instrumental outcomes) and their system performance contingencies. Classifications that have been suggested to the study of values in one area, life or work, have not been utilized, however, to the investigation of values in the other.

Defining the Life and Work Values domain

Based on previous research and on data collected from samples of Israeli managers and workers, the present study strives to find a basic concept structure of human values. A definitional framework which integrates life and work values, is suggested and empirically tested. We utilized the formal approach of facet analysis (Elizur, 1991; Elizur & Guttman, 1976; Guttman, 1959; Schwartz & Bilsky, 1987, 1990) for this purpose.

In order to analyze the values domain, an attempt was made to identify its essential facets. Three basic facets were distinguished: value modality, focus, and life area. The rationale for selecting these facets is outlined in the following.

Facet A: Value Modality

Various values are of instrumental or material nature, and

have direct concrete or practical consequences. For example, health, physical and economic security, pay, and work conditions. This class of values can be defined as instrumental.

A second class of values include mainly items dealing with interpersonal relations, and may be classified as affective. Some examples are love, pleasant friends, fair supervisor, etc. Certain other values are cognitive rather than affective or instrumental; e.g., interesting life or work, achievement, responsibility, and independence. Thus, facet A deals with the modality of the values; its three elements specify whether a value is instrumental, affective, or cognitive. The generality of the modality facet in behavioral research (Elizur, 1984, 1986, 1991; Elizur et al., 1991; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Sagie, 1994) may be advantageous for the study of human values. It can facilitate integration of work and nonwork values, and allow for a wider comparison of research results.

Facet B: Focus

The second facet concerns level of focus. The meaning of some values is focused, i.e., it is quite clear to what sorts of behaviors or situations they are relevant. Such values are money, good friends, and recognition for one's work performance. Some other values are more diffused. For example, meaningful life or work, contribution to society, and esteem as a person. This classification resembles Rokeach's (1973, 1979) distinction between instrumental and terminal life values, since the meaning of an instrumental value tends to be more focused, and that of a terminal value more diffused. The proposed classification resembles also Elizur's (1984) distinction between rewards (more focused work outcomes) and resources (more diffused).

Facet C: Life area

The third facet refers to the area of life to which the values are relevant. In the present study we are concerned with the

specific work domain versus life in general. Additional elements of this facet, such as family, culture, and religion, could be included as well.

The various elements of each facet appear in combination with the elements of other facets. Hence, status in society is an affective and focused life value, and personal growth at work is a cognitive and diffused work value. On the basis of the above observations, we drafted a formal definition of values by means of a mapping sentence. The three facets constitute the domain of the mapping sentence, and its range is the degree of importance of the values to the respondent.

A Mapping Sentence Definition of Human Values

The extent to which respondent X assesses the importance of having

<u>A. Modality</u>		<u>B. Focus</u>	
{ a1 instrumental }		{ b1 focused }	states, objects
{ a2 affective }	and	{ }	or behaviors
{ a3 cognitive }		{ b2 diffused }	pertaining to

<u>C. Life area</u>		<u>Range</u>
{ c1 life }		{ high }
{ }	-----> is of	{ : } importance in a sense of
{ c2 work }		{ low } well being.

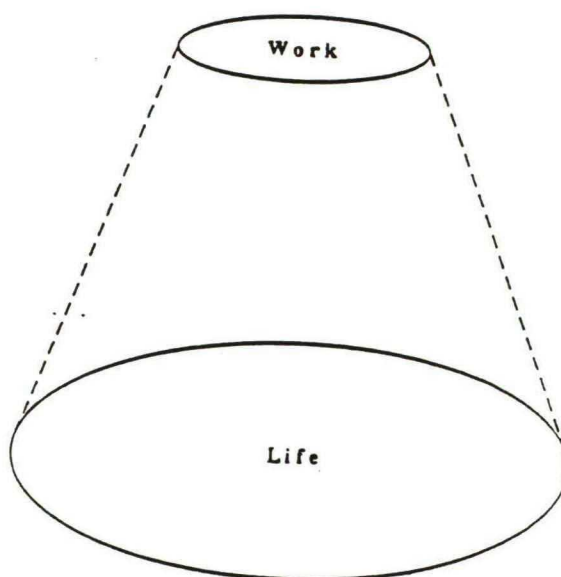
Objectives and Hypotheses

The main objective of this part of the study was to investigate the structure of human values, with an emphasis on the relationships between life and work values. It was hypothesized that an appropriate structural analysis of empirical data will reflect the three facets of the definition as independent classifications of the content universe of values.

Structural hypotheses drawn by means of facet analysis refer not only to the facet composition, but also to the internal order of the elements. No a priori order could be specified for the value modality facet (Elizur, 1991; Elizur et al., 1991). The elements of facet B were expected to be ordered from center to periphery. Focused values, whose relevance to behaviors and situations is quite clear, should be located in the center, and diffused values in the periphery.

Facet C, life area, refers to the relationships between life and work values. General life values were expected to occupy a wider circular region at the bottom and work values should occupy a smaller circular region at the top. The total structure hypothesized for the life and work values domain was that of a cone (see Figure 3). Similar conical representations were found in the study of work and nonwork relations (Elizur, 1991) and of quality of work life and quality of life (Elizur & Shye, 1990).

Figure 3. The Hypothesized Structure of Human Values: A Schematic Presentation



Subjects

Respondents were 165 Israeli employees in diverse organizations, participating in evening management courses. About half of the sample (82) were females; the mean age was 35 years. All of the respondents were high school graduates, and 70% of them reported some higher education. About 65% of the respondents had managerial roles.

Instrument

On the basis of the above mapping sentence, a 45 item questionnaire was devised. Twenty four items were adopted from Elizur et al.'s (1991) work values questionnaire. Twenty one items associated with life values were added, mostly parallel to the work values items.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A two-dimensional projection of a three-dimensional SSA-I computer program is reproduced in a map form in Figure 4. The coefficient of alienation, assessing the goodness of fit between the correlation matrix and the geometrical solution, was moderate (0.21).

Observing the map in Figure 4, one sees that work values occupy a narrower region, while the general life values occupy a wider region (the major part of the map). Let us concentrate first on the life value items; the work values will be considered separately.

The life values area could easily be partitioned into distinguishable regions according to the definition of values suggested. The three elements of the modality facet occupy each a distinct region, corresponding to a different direction: the instrumental items are on the top of the map, the cognitive items on the left, and the affective ones on the right. Thus, the modality facet was polarizing, as hypothesized. Both elements of

facet B, focus, could also be distinguished. All the focused items are located in a region nearer to the center of the map, while the diffused items are more in the periphery, as expected.

The enlarged work values map is presented in Figure 5. Similar to the area of life values (Figure 4), the work values area could be partitioned into regions according to the facets defined. Each of the modalities: cognitive, affective, and instrumental, corresponds to a different direction in the map. The focused items are in the center, and the diffused items in the periphery.

Figure 4 The Structure of Human Values: A Two-Dimensional Projection of a Three-Dimensional SSA-I (Coefficient of Alienation = .21)

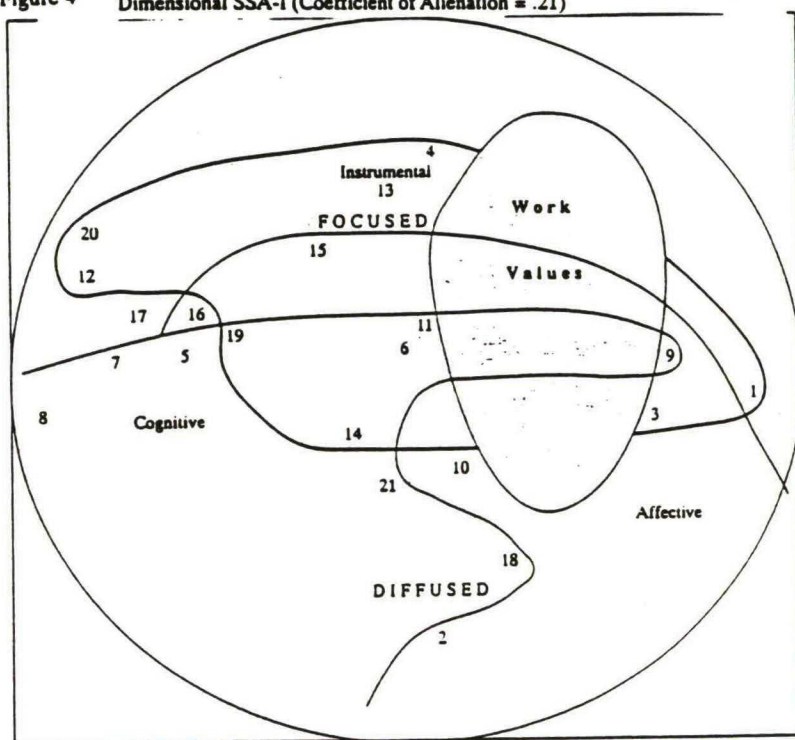
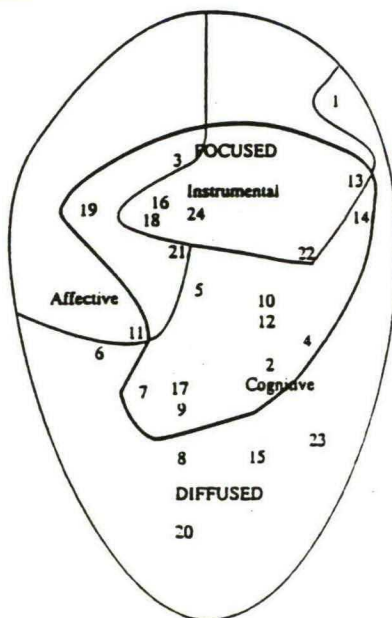


Figure 5 The Structure of Work Values: A Two-Dimensional Projection of a Three-Dimensional SSA-I (Coefficient of Alienation = .21)



The hypothesis regarding the total structure of the life and work values domain can be addressed by observing the map in Figure 3. Two plains may be distinguished in the three-dimensional space projected in the figure. The wider circular area of life values could be perceived as occupying one plain, the base, and the smaller area of work values is located on another plain, the top. The overall three-dimensional structure can be described as a cone. Thus, the structural analysis supports the definitional framework suggested for the life and work values domain, confirming both, its facet composition as well as the internal order of the elements.

The relative importance of individual life and work values, although less stable than the facet structure (Elizur, 1984), may also be of interest. Table 1 presents ranks order, means, and standard deviations for the life and work value items. The results in Table 1 indicate that the most important life values for the present sample were health, happiness, love, and physical and economic security. The least important life values were contribution to society, status in society, wealth, and influence on persons and events. The most important work values were job interest, responsibility, and a fair supervisor. The least important work values were benefits, contribution to society, and convenient work-hours.

It is interesting to observe that similar values did not necessarily obtain the same rank of importance in the life and work domains. Job interest and responsibility, for instance, were considered the most important values at work, but had obtained the eighth and ninth ranks in the general life area. Conversely, while the value of physical and economic security was considered a very important life value, occupying the fourth rank in the life hierarchy, its work counterpart, job security, obtained a considerably lower rank (place 13 out of 24). Hence, the similarity of the life and work sets of human values was reflected more in structure than in rank order.

Table 1

Life and Work Values: Rank Order, Means and Standard Deviations (N=165).

Life Values				Work Values			
Rank	Value	M	SD	Rank	Value	M	SD
1	Health	1.09	.36	1	Job interest	1.33	.50
2	Happiness	1.28	.48	2	Responsibility	1.51	.61
3	Love	1.45	.58	3	Fair supervisor	1.56	.63
4	Security	1.47	.61	4	Independence	1.57	.64
5	Independence	1.49	.61	5	Use of abilities	1.57	.63
6	Use of abilities	1.55	.60	6	Personal growth	1.59	.66
7	Meaningful life	1.59	.73	7	Job achievement	1.59	.62
8	Interest	1.61	.87	8	Meaningful work	1.65	.75
9	Responsibility	1.63	.65	9	Advancement	1.65	.66
10	Achievement	1.69	.69	10	Work feedback	1.65	.69
11	Recognition	1.74	.63	11	Esteem as a person	1.67	.82
12	Enjoyable life	1.77	.88	12	Recognition for performance	1.72	.69
13	Comfortable home	1.78	.79	13	Job security	1.73	.78
14	Advancement	1.79	.83	14	Good company to work for	1.74	.79
15	Having good friends	1.80	.75	15	Influence at work	1.74	.77
16	Esteem as a person	1.81	.89	16	Work conditions	1.80	.74
17	Comfortable life	1.89	.77	17	Job status	1.82	.86
18	Contribution to society	2.00	.84	18	Pay	1.85	.93
19	Status in society	2.01	.88	19	Coworkers	1.89	.81
20	Riches, wealth	2.25	1.03	20	Influence in the organization	1.94	.85
21	Influence	2.42	1.03	21	Interaction with people	1.96	.80
				22	Benefits	2.04	.96
				23	contribution to society	2.15	.92
				24	Convenient hours	2.24	1.19

No meaningful differences were found between the mean ranks of importance attributed to focused and diffused values, either in the life or work domain. Negligible differences only were observed among the mean ranks of the three life modalities. Instrumental work values tend, however, to be ranked lower than the other work value modalities. Similar low ranks were obtained for instrumental work values in studies conducted in several countries (Elizur, 1984; Elizur et al., 1991).

SUMMARY

The aim of this study was to analyze the structure of work values and general life values. Based on previous investigations, we proposed multifaceted definitions for both, life and work values, domains. These definitions facilitated formulation of hypotheses regarding the relations between the definitional framework and the empirical observations. Guttman's Smallest Space Analysis was applied to test the structural hypotheses.

Two facets of work values and three facets of the life values domain were hypothesized and verified. The value modality facet (affective, cognitive, or instrumental) is common to both domains. It was found to be polarizing, as hypothesized, as each modality corresponds to a different direction. The second work values facet, system performance contingency, ordered the space from center to periphery. The total structure of work values is a radex structure as hypothesized.

The second facet of life values, the first being the modality facet, concerned the degree of focus (focused or diffused), and the third facet referred to the relations between life in general and work. Focused items were nearer to the origin, both in the life and work values areas, while the diffused items were located in the periphery. The overall structure of the total universe was found to be that of a cone, as hypothesized; life values were located at the base of the cone and work values at its top.

Some differences were found between the importance of certain life and work values, which indicated that the importance of a value is not context-free. Rather, it depends on the environment in which the value is considered. Further research may elaborate the structure of values with additional samples of items and additional populations. The research design may be extended by including additional facets, or additional elements to the facets defined. Other sets of human values could be considered in addition to the general (life) and work values, e.g., religious, cultural, and political values. It would be interesting to see whether these sets of values would occupy similar radial regions in the same conical structure of human values. An integration of this model and other approaches to life values, such as the motivational types suggested by Schwartz (1992), may enhance our understanding of human values.

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